

THE EMC *MIRRORS & WINDOWS: CONNECTING WITH LITERATURE* Professional Resources and Research Base

Instruction in *Mirrors & Windows: Connecting with Literature* is based on decades of solid research and best practices in language arts education. Following is a list of specific resources that have been instrumental in shaping the series. The resources are grouped according to specific learning areas.

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How Selected Resources Direct EMC's Instruction

Resource List

Teaching Literature

EMC's Mirrors & Windows program is closely aligned with English curriculums across the county.

Applebee, A. N. (1993). *Literature in secondary schools: Studies of curriculum and instruction in U. S. schools*. Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English. Applebee describes programs that have reputations for excellence and discusses methods for teaching texts commonly used in English curriculums.

Appleman, D. (2000) *Critical encounters in high school English*. Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English. This book encourages teachers to teach literary theory, and offers strategies for teaching a variety of approaches.

Bamford, R. A. and Kristo, J. V. (1998). *Making facts come alive: Choosing quality nonfiction literature K-8*. Norwood, Massachusetts: Christopher-Gordon Publishers, Inc.

Reader's Context and Mirrors & Windows prompts in EMC's textbooks allow students to respond to what they are reading.

Beach, R. W. and Marshall J. (1997). *Teaching literature in the secondary school*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth/Thomson Learning. This valuable resource provides a historical review of reader response theories and offers instructional ideas to help students respond to literature.

Harmon, W., Holman, C. H., and Flint, W. (1999). *A handbook to literature*, 8th ed. Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: Prentice Hall. The *Handbook* is an alphabetical listing of words and phrases pertaining to the study of English and American literature, including selected references.

EMC consulted this resource when preparing lessons on the elements of poetry.

- Langer, J. A., ed. (1992). *Literature instruction: A focus on student response*. Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English.
- Merriam-Webster, Inc. (1995). *Merriam-Webster's encyclopedia of literature*. Springfield, Massachusetts: Merriam-Webster, Inc.
- Newell, G. E. and Durst, R. K. (1993). *Exploring texts: The roles of discussion and writing in the teaching and learning of literature*. Norwood, MA: Christopher-Gordon.
- Nims, J. F. and Mason, D. (2000). *Western wind: An introduction to poetry*, 4th ed. Boston: McGraw-Hill. This excellent book teaches the elements of poetry through classic and contemporary poems.
- Probst, R. *Response and analysis: Teaching literature in junior and senior high school*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann. Probst expands Rosenblatt's ideas (below) about the transaction between reader and text.
- Raphael, T. and Au, K. H., eds. *Literature-based instruction: Reshaping the curriculum*. (1998). Norwood, MA: Christopher-Gordon Publishers, Inc. This collection of articles illuminates the importance of interpreting, responding to, and making meaning of literature as well as using literature to make cultural, interdisciplinary, and literature-writing connections.
- Rosenblatt, L. (1938, 1996). *Literature as exploration*, 5th ed. New York: MLA. Rosenblatt advocates a reader-response approach in which a text's meaning arises from the interaction between a specific reader and the words on the page.
- Stevens, B. K. and Stewart, L. L. (1991). *A guide to literary criticism and research*. Stamford, Connecticut: International Thomson Publishing.

Teaching Reading Comprehension

- Allen, J. (2000). *Yellow brick roads: Shared and guided paths to independent reading 4–12*. Portland, Maine: Stenhouse Publishers. Allen discusses a broad range of instructional strategies that lead to reading success, including read-alouds, shared and guided reading.
- Allington, R. (2002). *What really matters for struggling readers: designing research-based programs*. New York: Longman. Allington helps teachers design reading programs for struggling readers.

Explicit literacy instruction is offered for every selection in *Mirrors & Windows: Connecting with Literature*.

- **Alvermann, D. E. (2001). *Effective literacy instruction for adolescents*. Chicago, IL: National Reading Conference. This report was commissioned by the National Reading Conference. It concludes that adolescent readers need literacy instruction embedded in their regular classes and such instruction should include a variety of texts and purposes.
- *Alvermann, D. E. and Boothby, P. R. (1983). Preliminary investigation of the differences in children's retention of inconsiderate text, *Reading Psychology*, 4, 237–246. Using graphic organizers helps students remember important information from texts that demand extra effort, skill, or prior knowledge.

Prereading pages provided for every selection in EMC's textbooks help build background knowledge; Reader's Context questions help readers connect to prior knowledge.

EMC's prereading activities facilitate vocabulary development and build on prior knowledge.

- **Anders, P. L. and Lloyd, C. V. (1989). The significance of prior knowledge in the learning of new content-specific instruction. In D. Lapp, J. Flood, and N. Farnan, eds, *Content area reading and learning: Instructional strategies*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall. Helping students connect to prior knowledge increases comprehension of content area materials.
- Anderson, R. (1984). Role of reader's schema in comprehension, learning, and memory. In R. Anderson, J. Osborne, and R. Tierney, eds, *Learning to read in American schools*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates. This article focuses on the role of readers' prior experiences, knowledge, and beliefs in shaping reading comprehension. Schema theory supports the importance of before-reading activities that prepare students to read.
- Anderson, R. C. and Pearson, P. D. (1984). A schema-theoretic view of basic process in reading comprehension. In P. D. Pearson, R. Barr, M. L. Kamil, and P. Mosenthal, eds, *Handbook of reading research*. New York: Longman. The authors focus on the reader's central role in the construction of meaning in a text.
- **Armbruster, B. B., and Armstrong, J. O. (1993). Locating information in text: A focus on children in the elementary grades. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 18(2), 139–161. The authors review studies on students' ability to find answers in informational texts. They conclude that students need instruction on how to read informational text and should be given more opportunities to read informational text.
- Atwell, N. (1987, 1999). *In the middle: Writing, reading, and learning with adolescents*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann. Atwell advocates mini-lessons, each focusing on one reading strategy.
- Barr, R., Blachowicz, C. Z., Katz, C., and Kaufman, B. (2001). *Reading diagnosis for teachers: An instructional approach*. New York: Allyn and Bacon. Case studies help teachers diagnose and treat students' reading difficulties. Prior knowledge and vocabulary development are found to be key components of successful instruction.
- *Bean, T. W. and Steenwyk, F. L. (1984). The effect of three forms of summarization instruction on sixth graders' summary writing and comprehension. *Journal of Reading Behavior*, 16, 297–306. Students trained in summarization techniques increased their recall of text material.
- *Beck, I. L., Perfetti, C. A., and McKeown, M. G. (1982). Effects of long-term vocabulary instruction on lexical access and reading comprehension. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 74(4), 506–521. Teaching and reteaching words over a five-month period increased students' ability to understand them in written text and increased their comprehension scores.
- Beers, K. and Samuels, B. G. (1998). *Into focus: Understanding and creating middle school readers*. Norwood, MA: Christopher-Gordon Publishers, Inc. This practical handbook provides a wealth of ideas for motivating middle school readers and improving reading comprehension.

A wide variety of graphic organizers are presented with the reading skills introduced on the prereading page of each selection.

Making Connections by activating prior knowledge in the Reader's Context questions is built into the prereading activities in *Mirrors & Windows*.

- Behrens, L and Rosen, L. J. (2002). *Writing and reading across the curriculum*, 6th ed. New York: Addison Wesley Longman, Inc. The authors provide teachers with methods to help students synthesize material and produce informative written summaries.
- *Borduin, B. J., Borduin, C. M., and Manley, C. M. (1994). The use of imagery training to improve reading comprehension of second graders. *Journal of Genetic Psychology*, 155(1), 115–118. Second graders who were taught how to make mental images as they read scored higher than students without this instruction on tests that measured their ability to make inferences about a text.
- *Boyle, J. R. and Weishaar, M. (1997). The effects of expert-generated versus student-generated cognitive organizers on the reading comprehension of students with a learning disability. *Learning Disabilities Research and Practice*, 12(4), 228–235. Students who generated their own graphic organizers scored higher than students who used an expert-generated graphic organizer, but both groups outscored a control group.
- Burke, J. (2002). Making notes, making meaning. *Voices from the Middle*, 9(4), 15–21. The author discusses note-taking systems that help low-achieving readers.
- Burke, J. (2000). *Reading reminders: Tools, tips, and techniques*. Portsmouth, NH: Boynton/Cook. Burke presents a host of ideas for helping English teachers improve students' reading skills.
- Burmark, L. (2002). *Visual literacy: Learn to see, see to learn*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. The author explains, with examples, the importance of teaching students visual literacy in conjunction with literacy skills.
- **Cambourne, B. (2002). Holistic, integrated approaches to reading and language arts instruction: The constructivist framework of an instructional theory. In A. E. Farstrup and S. J. Samuels, *What research has to say about reading instruction*, Newark, DE: International Reading Association. Cambourne's approach strives for the active participation of learners and for teachers to guide learners by being participant-observers.
- *Chan, L. K., Cole, P. G., and Barfett, S. (1987). Comprehension monitoring: Detection and identification of text inconsistencies by LD and normal students. *Learning Disability Quarterly*, 10 (2), 114–124. Learning disabled children taught to generate questions, underline, and reread scored higher on comprehension tests than students not trained in these techniques.
- *Christen, W. L. and Murphy, T. J. Increasing comprehension by activating prior knowledge. (1991). Bloomington, IN: ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading, English, and Communication, EDO-CD-91-04. According to this study, preteaching vocabulary and providing background knowledge and conceptual frameworks increases reading comprehension in readers who lack prior knowledge.
- *Collins, C. (1991). Reading instruction that increases thinking abilities. *Journal of Reading*, 34(7), 510–516. Students enjoyed reading lessons that increased their thinking abilities. The lessons also improved their writing and communication skills.

EMC provides explicit instruction on reading strategies and skills in the Reading Models and prereading activities.

Make Predictions is one of the reading strategies developed in the Reading Models.

- **Curtis, M. E. (2002). *Adolescent reading research since 1990*. Cambridge, MA: Center for Special Education, Lesley University. Curtis summarizes adolescent reading research conducted since 1990.
- *Davey, B. (1983). Think aloud: Modeling the cognitive process of reading comprehension. *Journal of Reading*, 27(1), 44–47. Davey advises teachers to help students verbalize their thoughts while reading by modeling their own thinking as they read a text aloud. Students taught the technique had better reading comprehension and were better able to transfer the skill to other learning situations than students without explicit instruction.
- *Davey, B. and McBride, M. (1986). Effects of question generation on reading comprehension. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 78, 2–7. Students trained in question generation strategies were able to generate questions for new passages and scored higher on comprehension tests.
- *Dufflemeyer, F. (1994). Effective anticipation guide statements for learning from expository prose. *Journal of Reading*, 37(6), 452–457. According to this study, statements on anticipation guides should be based on student’s prior knowledge, center on main ideas, and include new ideas.
- *Duke, N. K. and Pearson, P. D. (2002). Effective practices for developing reading comprehension. In A. E. Farstrup and S. Jay Samuels, eds. *What research has to say about reading instruction*. Newark, DE: International Reading Association. The authors describe effective comprehension strategies and note that using even one of the strategies improves comprehension. They stress that teachers should concentrate on teaching a few strategies well.
- *Eanet, M. and Manzo, A. V. (1976). REAP: A strategy for improving reading/writing/study skills. *Journal of Reading*, 19, 647–652. The authors describe how to train readers to take better notes as they read.
- *Elliott-Faust, D. J. and Pressley, M. (1986). How to teach comparison processing to increase children’s short- and long-term listening comprehension monitoring. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 78, 27–33. Students given training on how to compare texts as they listened to them read aloud were able to detect more text errors than students who did not receive the training.
- Ericson, B. O., ed. (2001). *Teaching reading in high school English classes*. Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English. This collection of essays focuses on strategies for helping struggling readers in secondary English classrooms. It explores vocabulary instruction, reading-writing connections, and literature circles.
- **Fielding, L. C. and Pearson, P. D. (1994). Reading comprehension: What works. *Educational Leadership*, 52, 62–68. To increase reading comprehension, the authors advise teachers to demonstrate reading strategies, provide opportunities for collaborative learning and discussion, and include extensive reading of student-selected texts.
- Foley, C. L. (1993). Prediction: A Valuable Reading Strategy. *Reading Improvement*, 30(3), 166–170. Research since the 1960s has shown that prediction strategies help readers comprehend text.

Differentiated Instruction activities in the Teacher's Edition and in the Lesson Plans provide ideas and materials for teaching English language learners.

Before-, during-, and after-reading support is scaffolded throughout the units, with independent reading selections at the end of each unit or part.

- *Freebody, P. and Anderson, R. C. (1983). Effects of vocabulary difficulty, text cohesion, and schema availability on reading comprehension. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 18(3), 277–294. Familiarity with both the topic and vocabulary in a passage increased students' performance on recall tasks, but familiarity with one did not compensate for lack of the other. Students need both.
- *Fukkink, J. L. and de Glopper, K. (1998). Effects of instruction in deriving word meaning from context: A meta-analysis. *Review of Educational Research*, 68(4), 450–469. The authors found that students can be taught how to use context clues, and students who used context clues had higher comprehension scores than those who did not.
- Gallagher, K. *Deeper reading: Comprehending challenging texts*, 4-12. (2004). Portland, ME; Stenhouse Publishers. This text asserts and gives many examples of how reading activities and scaffolding can affect the depths with which students engage with a text.
- *Gambrell, L. B. and Bales, R. J. (1986). Mental imagery and the comprehension-monitoring performance of fourth and fifth-grade poor readers. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 21, 454–464. Teaching students how to make mental images as they read increased their ability to understand text and pick out inconsistencies in a summary passage.
- *García, E. E. (1991). Factors influencing the English reading test performance of Spanish-speaking Hispanic children. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 26(4), 371–392. Oral interviews showed that reading comprehension tests fail to measure Hispanic students' actual understanding of reading passages. Such students also need additional knowledge and vocabulary instruction.
- Gillet, J. W. and Temple, C. (1990). *Understanding reading problems: Assessment and instruction*. New York: HarperCollins. The authors describe diagnostic tools and instructional strategies to use with struggling readers.
- *Graves, M. F., Cooke, C. L., and LaBerge, M. J. (1983). Effects of previewing difficult short stories on low ability junior high school students' comprehension, recall, and attitudes. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 23, 262–276. Previewing short stories increase students' ability to answer factual and inferential questions about them.
- Graves, M. F. and Graves, B. B. (1994). *Scaffolding reading experiences: Designs for student success*. Norwood, MA: Christopher-Gordon. The authors provide an instructional procedure that supports students' reading experiences and guides them to independence. Two appendices help teachers choose materials that match students' interests and needs.
- Graves, M.F., Juel, C., and Graves, B.B. (1998). *Teaching reading in the 21st century*. Needham Heights, MA: Allyn and Bacon. The authors discuss the process of literacy development, and advocate the use of scaffolding and gradual release in teaching literacy skills.

**EMC's Set Purpose
feature provided in
each prereading
page helps students
set their own
learning goals.**

- *Graves, M. F. and Palmer, R. J. (1981). Validating previewing as a method of improving fifth and sixth grade students' comprehension of short stories. *Michigan Reading Journal*, 15, 1–3. This study found previewing increased students' ability to answer factual questions about stories, but did not increase their ability to answer inferential questions.
- Graves, M. F., Palmer, R. J., and Furniss, D. W. (1976). *Structuring reading assignments for English classes*. Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English. The authors review the research on before-, during-, and after-reading activities and present examples of these activities.
- *Graves, M. F., Prenn, M. C., and Cooke, C. L. (1985). The coming attraction: Previewing short stories to increase comprehension. *Journal of Reading*, 28, 549–598. The authors discuss the importance of previewing short stories and present guidelines for writing them.
- *Griffin, C. C. (1995). Effects of graphic organizer instruction on fifth-grade students. *Journal of Educational Research*, 89(2), 98–107. Graphic organizer instruction increased fifth graders' ability to read and remember social studies material.
- *Grossen, B. and Carnine, D. (1992). Translating research on text structure into classroom practice. *Teaching Exceptional Children*, 24(4), 48–53. The researchers use four types of maps to help poor readers follow text structure.
- **Guthrie, J. T. and Wigfield, A. (2000). Engagement and motivation in reading. In M. L. Kamil, P. B. Mosenthal, P. D. Pearson, and R. Barr, eds, *Handbook of reading research*, vol 3. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates. The authors conclude that readers need interesting texts, strategy instruction, and opportunities for collaborative learning. Teachers who evaluate students' efforts and help them set learning goals increase students' engagement and motivation.
- **Guthrie, J. (2002). Preparing students for high-stakes test taking in reading. In A. E. Farstrup and S. J. Samuels, *What research has to say about reading instruction*, Newark, DE: International Reading Association. To help students prepare for tests, teachers should provide reading strategy instruction and practice with a test within a balanced instructional format.
- *Haggard, M. R. (1988). Developing critical thinking with the directed reading-thinking activity. *Reading Teacher*, 41(6), 526–533. The author explains how to create a directed reading thinking activity (DRTA).
- *Hansen, J. and Pearson, P. D. (1983). An instructional study: Improving the inferential comprehension of good and poor fourth-grade readers. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 76(6), 821–829. Students who received training and practice in connecting to their prior knowledge were able to make more inferences about what they had read than students who did not receive the training and practice.
- Harvey, S. (2001). Questioning the Text. *Instructor*, 110(8), 16–18. Harvey describes successful methods for increasing students' reading comprehension, including think-alouds, marking the text, and using

Reading Models and ATE activities help teachers give explicit strategic reading instruction.

Use Text Organization is a reading skill that is practiced in Use Reading Skills in the prereading section.

Monitor Comprehension is a reading skill that is practiced in Use Reading Skills in the prereading section.

Visualize is one of the reading strategies practiced in the Reading Models.

Take Notes is a reading skill that is practiced in Use Reading Skills in prereading. While

sticky notes.

Harvey, S. and Goudvis, A. (2001). *Strategies that work: Teaching comprehension to enhance understanding*. York, ME: Stenhouse Publishers. This book shows teachers how to use strategic reading instruction to improve reading comprehension. Part Two contains many strategy lessons and descriptions of how teachers at various levels have implemented them.

Herber, H. L. (1978). *Teaching reading in content areas*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall. The author provides ways for content-area teachers to help students improve their reading skills.

*Idol, L. and Croll, V. J. (1987). Story-mapping training as a means of improving reading comprehension. *Learning Disability Quarterly*, 10, 214–229. Third and fourth grade students with poor comprehension skills were taught a story-mapping technique that increased their comprehension and their ability to write about the story.

*Johnston, P. (1984). Prior knowledge and reading comprehension test bias. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 19, 219–228. Students' lack of prior knowledge decreases their ability to answer factual and inferential test questions.

Keene, E. O. and Zimmerman, S. (1997). *Mosaic of thought: Teaching comprehension in a reader's workshop*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann. This popular handbook stresses the importance of metacognition for reading comprehension.

*Kinnunen, R. and Vauras, M. (1995). Comprehension monitoring and the level of comprehension in high- and low-achieving primary school children's reading. *Learning and Instruction*, 5(2), 143–165. The authors found that students who monitor their reading progress have better comprehension skills.

*Laufer, B. and Sim, D. D. (1985). Measuring and explaining the reading threshold needed for English for academic purpose texts. *Foreign Language Annals*, 18, 405–411. Vocabulary instruction is vital to helping English Language Learners read academic texts.

*Levin, J. R. and Divine-Hawkins, P. (1974). Visual imagery as a prose-learning process. *Journal of Reading Behavior*, 6, 23–30. Students taught to use visual imagery have an easier time creating visual images and are able to answer more questions correctly than those without the training.

*Levin, J. R., Shriberg, L. D., and Berry, J. K. (1983). Concrete strategy for remembering abstract prose. *American Educational Research Journal*, 20(2), 277–290. Pictures that organize key words help students remember and understand short prose.

**Levin, J. R. and Pressley, M. (1981). Improving children's prose comprehension: Selected strategies that seem to succeed. In C. M. Santa and B. L. Hayes, eds. *Children's prose comprehension: Research and practice*. Newark, DE: International Reading Association. Reading strategies matched to materials and students require specific instruction by teachers.

**Marzano, R. J., Pickering, D. J., and Pollock, J. E. (2001). *Classroom instruction that works: Research-based strategies for increasing student achievement*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision

using this skill, students summarize, take notes, and construct graphic organizers.

and Curriculum Development. Researchers at Mid-continent Research for Education and Learning (McREL) identify nine instructional strategies that enhance student achievement. Among their suggestions are summarizing and note-taking, nonlinguistic representations, and advance organizers.

*McKeown, M., Beck, I., Osmanson, R., and Pope, M. (1985). Some effects of the nature and frequency of vocabulary instruction on the knowledge and use of words. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 20, 304–330. Presenting words in several contexts and providing multiple exposures increased students’ understanding of a text.

*McKeown, M. G., Beck, I. L., Sinatra, G. M., and Loxterman, J. A. (1992). The contribution of prior knowledge and coherent text to comprehension. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 27, 78–93. Tapping students’ prior knowledge and their knowledge of a text’s organization increases their comprehension.

**McLain, K. V. (1991). *Metacognition in reading comprehension: What it is and strategies for instruction*. *Reading Improvement*, 28(3), 169–172. The author reviews the research on metacognition and discusses fix-up strategies teachers can show students.

McLaughlin, M. and Allen, M. B. (2002). *Guided comprehension: A teaching model for grades 3–8*. New York: International Reading Association. The guided comprehension model advocated by McLaughlin and Allen combines teacher-directed whole-group instruction with student- and teacher-facilitated small group work.

*McMacklin, M. C. (1998). Using narrative picture books to build awareness of expository text structure. *Reading Horizons*, 39(1), 7–20. McMacklin uses graphic organizers with upper elementary and middle school students to help them understand text structure.

Meyer, B. J. F. (1975). *The organization of prose and its effect on memory*. Amsterdam, Netherlands: North-Holland Publishing. Meyer details the importance of text structure to reading comprehension.

*Nagy, W. E., Herman, P. A., and Anderson, R. C. (1985). Learning words from context. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 20, 233–252. The context in which new words are embedded helps readers become independent learners and increases their vocabulary knowledge.

**National Reading Panel. (2000). *Teaching children to read: An evidence-based assessment of the scientific research literature on reading and its implications for reading instruction*. Washington, DC: National Institute of Child Health and Human Development. A report commissioned by Congress reviews evidence-based research on effective phonics, phonemic awareness, fluency, comprehension, and vocabulary instruction.

*Ogle, D. M. (1986). K-W-L: A teaching model that develops active reading of an expository text. *The Reading Teacher*, 39, 564–570. KWL charts help teachers identify students’ needs and help students connect to prior knowledge.

Opitz, M. F. and Rasinski, T. V. (1998). *Good-bye round robin: 25 effective oral reading strategies*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann. Arguing that conventional round-robin approaches to oral reading prohibit rather than facilitate reading comprehension, Opitz and Rasinski suggest 25 alternative practices.

Instruction in EMC’s *Mirrors & Windows* program is based on solid research from the National Reading Panel.

**EMC's Reading
Strategies and Skills
can be used across
the curriculum.**

- *Olshavsky, J. E. and Kletzing, K. (1979). Prediction: One strategy for reading success in high school. *Journal of Reading*, 22(6), 512–516. In this study, good readers were better predictors of story outcomes than were poor readers.
- *Palinscar, A. S. and Brown, A. L. (1984). Reciprocal teaching of comprehension fostering and monitoring activities. *Cognition and instruction*, 1, 117–175. In two studies, students taught to summarize, question, predict, and clarify greatly increased their ability to complete postreading tasks.
- *Palmer, R. J., Slater, W. H., and Graves, M. F. (1980). The effect of passage difficulty on good and poor readers' use of author's schema in written recall protocols. In J. L. Kamil and A. J. Moe, eds., *Perspectives in reading research*. Washington, DC: National Reading Conference, 38–41. Readers who used an author's schema in written recalls remembered more information about a text than students who did not.
- Pauk, W. (1962, 2000). *How to study in college*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. Pauk details study techniques that help students read and remember material, including note-taking, questions in the margin, using visual thinking, and concentrating on vocabulary development.
- **Pearson, P. D., Roehler, L. R., Dole, J. A., and Duffy, G. G. (1992). Developing expertise in reading comprehension. In J. Samuels and A. Farstrup, eds., *What research has to say about reading instruction*. Newark, DE: International Reading Association. This review of research on reading strategies articulates the importance of practicing reading strategies in classrooms.
- *Peters, E. E. and Levin, J. R. (1986). Effects of a mnemonic imagery strategy on good and poor readers' prose recall. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 21, 179–192. Students with either good or poor reading comprehension benefited from learning a mnemonic imaging strategy.
- **Pressley, M. (2002). Metacognition and self-regulated comprehension. In A. E. Farstrup and S. J. Samuels, eds., *What research has to say about reading instruction*, Newark, DE: International Reading Association. The author discusses before-, during- and after- reading strategies and give a summary of the research on the strategies.
- **Pressley, M. (2000). What should comprehension instruction be the instruction of? In M. L. Kamil, P. B. Mosenthal, P. D. Pearson, and R. Barr, eds., *Handbook of reading research*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates. Readers need instruction in decoding, vocabulary, prior knowledge, and awareness of the reading process. Students need to learn how to use self-regulated reading strategies.
- *Pressley, G. M. (1976). Mental imagery helps eight-year-olds remember what they read. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 68, 355–359. Students shown how to make mental images in increasingly longer texts were able to correctly answer more short answer questions than students told to simply read and remember.

EMC's program provides explicit reading strategy instruction.

****RAND Reading Study Group. (2000). *Reading for understanding: Toward an R & D program in reading comprehension*. Santa Monica, CA: RAND Education.** This report summarizes research on reading comprehension. It says that readers need explicit instruction in reading comprehension in order to achieve proficiency.

Robb, L. (2000). *Teaching reading in middle school*. New York: Scholastic. In this workshop-based approach to reading instruction, Robb includes strategy lessons for before, during, and after reading.

***Robinson, D. H. and K. A. Kiewra. (1995). Visual argument: Graphic organizers are superior to outlines in improving learning from text. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 87(3), 455–67. [ERIC EJ517168].**

Reader's Context and Mirrors & Windows prompts allow students to respond personally to what they are reading.

Rosenblatt, L. (1938, 1996). *Literature as exploration*, 5th ed. New York: MLA. Rosenblatt advocates a reader-response approach in which a text's meaning arises from the interaction between a specific reader—with his or her own background knowledge, prior experiences, beliefs, and values—and the words on the page.

Rumelhart, D. E. (1980) Schemata: The building blocks of cognition. In R. J. Spiro, B. C. Bruce, and W. F. Brewer (Eds.), *Theoretical issues in reading comprehension*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum, 33–58. Rumelhart describes how readers organize information in their minds as they read.

Sadler, C. R. (2001). *Comprehension strategies for middle grade learners: A handbook for content area teachers*. New York: International Reading Association. Sadler offers 56 strategies—including teaching procedures, illustrative examples, and assessment ideas—for enhancing content-area literacy.

****Samuels, S. J. (2002). Reading fluency: Its development and assessment. In A. E. Farstrup and S. Jay Samuels, eds., *What research has to say about reading instruction*. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.** The author summarizes what teachers do to develop students' reading fluency and discusses the effectiveness of repeated readings.

Collaborative learning opportunities are included in the extension activities in postreading and are an essential part of EMC's program.

Scala, M. C. (2001). *Working together: Reading and writing in inclusive classrooms*. New York: International Reading Association. Scala discusses scientifically-based instructional strategies that allow all students to feel part of a regular classroom. Her experiences in inclusive classrooms demonstrate that collaborative activities allow students to help each other become successful.

****Shanahan, T. (2002). What reading research says: The promise and limitation of applying research to reading education. In A. E. Farstrup and S. J. Samuels, eds., *What research has to say about reading instruction*, Newark, DE: International Reading Association.** The author defines reading research and discusses why it is valuable. A discussion of research-related, research-based, and research-proven categories is included.

- *Short, E. J. and Ryan, E. B. (1984). Metacognitive differences between skilled and less-skilled readers: Remediating deficits through story grammar and attribution training. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 76, 225–235. Readers taught to be aware of story grammar elements demonstrated improved reading comprehension. Trained, less-skilled readers outscored skilled readers who had not received the training.
- Smith, M. W. and Wilhelm, J. D. (2002). *“Reading don’t fix no Chevys”: Literacy in the lives of young men*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann. This book offers suggestions for increasing boys’ involvement in school-based reading activities. The authors believe it is easier to get boys engaged with shorter texts. Boys tend to prefer ancillary books to textbooks.
- **Stewart, O. and Tei, E. (1983). Some implications of metacognition for reading instruction. *Journal of Reading*, 15, 36–43. The authors review reading research and suggest reading strategies, including creating mind pictures, rereading, and changing reading rate.
- Stover, L. T. and Zenker, S. F. (1997). *Books for you, an annotated booklist for senior high*, 13th ed. Urbana, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English.
- *Taylor, B. M. and Frye, B. J. (1992). Comprehension strategy instruction in the intermediate grades. *Reading Research and Instruction*, 32, 39–48. Students who received strategy instruction were able to summarize reading materials better than students who did not receive strategy instruction.
- Taylor, B. M., Graves, M. F. and Van Den Broek, P., eds., *Reading for meaning: Fostering comprehension in the middle grades*. (2000). Newark, DE: International Reading Association. The selections in this text support research on reading comprehension and the importance of reading comprehension instruction.
- *Taylor, K. K. (1986). Summary writing by young children. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 21, 193–207. An examination of the summarizing abilities of good and poor readers showed that poor readers did not know how to summarize expository or narrative text. Good readers used strategies that can be taught to poor readers.
- Tovani, C. (2000). *I read it, but I don’t get it: Comprehension strategies for adolescent readers*. Portland, Maine: Stenhouse Publishers. Tovani describes how to use current research-based strategies to inspire readers to make connections to what they read. Teachers guide students’ use of the strategies by assigning diaries and worksheets.
- Thomas, E. L. and Robinson, H. A. (1972). *Improving reading in every class*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon. Thomas and Robinson present procedures for teaching vocabulary and comprehension skills in content area classes.
- Trends & issues in secondary English*. (2000). Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English. This in-depth book explores critical literacy, media literacy, and the influence of technology and the World Wide Web on writing and literacy in the secondary classroom.
- *Twining, J. E. (1985). Generating a note-taking schema. *Journal of*

EMC's Differentiated Instruction activities in the ATE and Meeting the Standards resource books help teachers instruct students in their zone of proximal development.

Differentiated instruction in the ATE provides activities for learners with audio, visual, and kinesthetic learning styles.

Developmental Education, 9(1), 14–23. The author includes a review of note-taking research and states the importance of a reader's ability to make summary notes.

Vacca, R. T. (2002). From efficient decoders to strategic readers. *Educational leadership*, 60, 6–11. The author discusses developing readers' need for literacy programs that extend across the content areas.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press. Vygotsky is most noted for distinguishing the "zone of proximal development," or the level of performance at which a student can succeed with support from outside resources, but not on his or her own. This zone is the realm in which the greatest learning can take place.

**Wade, S. E. and Moje, E. B. (2000). The role of text in classroom learning. In M. L. Kamil, P. B. Mosenthal, P. D. Pearson, and R. Barr (Eds.), *Handbook of reading research*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates. The authors discuss the role of textbooks, trade books, magazines, newspapers, and teacher- and student-prepared materials in the classroom.

Wade, S. E. and Reynolds, R. E. (1989). Developing metacognitive awareness. *Journal of Reading*, 33(1), 6–14. The authors present activities to help students become aware of their thoughts and strategies as they work.

Wilhelm, J. D. (2001). *Improving comprehension with think-aloud strategies*. New York: Scholastic. Wilhelm offers a wealth of practical ideas for making cognition visible to students by using think alouds. His ideas helped shape the mini-lessons and test practice pages in the *Literature and the Language Arts Reading Strategies Resource*.

Wilhelm, J.D., Baker, T. N. and Hackett, J. D. (2001). *Strategic reading: Guiding students to lifelong literacy 6-12*. Portsmouth, NH: Boynton/Cook Publishers. The focus of this book is on teaching students how to learn and how to understand and use what they read.

Wilhelm, J. D. and Smith, M. W. (1996). *"You gotta BE the book": Teaching engaged and reflective reading with adolescents*. New York: Teachers College Press. Emanating from the notion that reading enjoyment comes from truly engaging with a text, this book elaborates strategies for helping all readers, especially reluctant readers, engage with their reading.

**Williams, J. P. (2002). Reading comprehension strategies and teacher preparation. In A. E. Farstrup and S. J. Samuels, eds., *What research has to say about reading instruction*, Newark, DE: International Reading Association. The author discusses reading strategies research and offers suggestions on how teachers can implement the strategies.

Zwiers, J. (2004). *Building reading comprehension habits in grades 6-12: A toolkit of classroom activities*. Newark, DE: International Reading Association. Zwiers explains various reading comprehension strategies and offers activities surrounding each strategy for use in upper grades classrooms.

Teaching Vocabulary and Word Study

Vocabulary activities in prereading and in the ATE practice using context clues to unlock meaning of new vocabulary.

Allen, J. (1999). *Words, words, words: Teaching vocabulary in grades 4–12*. York, ME: Stenhouse. Allen offers numerous context-rich vocabulary activities that help students learn concepts rather than isolated words and definitions.

**Anderson, R. and Nagy, W. (1991). Word meanings. In R. Barr, M. Kamil, P. Monsenthal, and P. D. Pearson, eds., *Handbook of reading research*, vol. 2, 690–724. New York: Longman. The authors offer evidence that teaching definitions devoid of context is ineffective. They suggest that using words in multiple contexts enhances word learning.

Ayers, D. M. (1986). *English words from Latin and Greek elements*, 2nd ed. Rev. by Thomas D. Worthen. Tucson, AZ: The University of Arizona Press. Ayers provides fifty lessons on the origins of words in English, discussing prefixes, suffixes, and roots as well as acronyms, backformations, hybrids, folk etymology, clipped words, homonyms, and much more. Half of the lessons focus on Latin word elements; the other half focus on Greek.

Comprehensive lists of Latin and Greek word parts are included.

**Baker, S. K., Simmons, D. C., and Kameenui, E. J. (1995a.). *Vocabulary acquisition: Synthesis of the research*. Technical Report No. 13. University of Oregon: National Center to Improve the Tools for Educators. This article synthesizes study findings into five areas of convergence: the existence of extensive vocabulary size differences, critical factors contributing to differences in vocabulary development, differences in the depth of word knowledge, instructional methods yielding positive results, and the impact of reading skills on vocabulary growth.

**Baker, S. K., Simmons, D. C., and Kameenui, E. J. (1995b). *Vocabulary acquisition: Curricular and instructional implications for diverse learners*. Technical Report No. 14. University of Oregon: National Center to Improve the Tools for Educators. Building on the research synthesis above, the authors address the instructional priorities for vocabulary development and evidence regarding curriculum design to address each priority.

**Beck, I. and McKeown, M. (1991). Conditions of vocabulary acquisition. In R. Barr, M. Kamil, P. Monsenthal, and P. D. Pearson, eds., *Handbook of reading research*, vol. 2, 789–814. New York: Longman. This article addresses degrees of word knowledge and the role of instruction in improving vocabulary.

*Bos, C. S. and Anders, P. L. (1990). Effects of interactive vocabulary instruction on the vocabulary learning and reading comprehension of junior-high learning-disabled students. *Learning Disability Quarterly*, 13(1), 31–42. Focusing on vocabulary acquisition and resulting reading comprehension gains in learning-disabled students, this study evaluates three interactive vocabulary strategies.

Students learn new words in the Pupil's Edition, and in the Meeting the Standards Unit resource books and the Exceeding the Standards: Vocabulary & Spelling resource.

- **Carey, S. (1978). The child as word learner. In M. Halle, J. Bresman, and G. Miller, eds., *Linguistic theory and psychological reality*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press. In this article, Carey distinguishes between fast mapping and extended mapping of words and suggests that knowledge of individual words increases gradually as one is exposed to each word in different contexts.
- Grambs, D. (1993). *The describer's dictionary: A treasury of terms and literary quotations*. New York: W. W. Norton.
- Green, J. (1993). *The word wall: Teaching vocabulary through immersion*. Ontario: Pippin. Drawing from his teaching experience, Green presents a wealth of word wall activities. He includes a word wall blueprint and ideas about words students can collect. He suggests that students gather synonyms, antonyms, and homonyms, as well as words that present specific sounds and categories.
- McKeown, M. G. and Beck, I. L. (1988). Learning vocabulary: Different ways for different goals. *Remedial and Special Education*, 9(1), 42–46. McKeown and Beck suggest instructional techniques appropriate for different levels of word knowledge.
- Nagy, W. E. (1988). *Teaching vocabulary to improve reading comprehension*. Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English. Nagy argues that neither definition nor context alone is sufficient for word learning, but that combining the two can be effective. He identifies the following three qualities of effective vocabulary instruction: integration with knowledge of a broader concept, repetition, and meaningful use.
- Rawson, H. (1981, 1995). *Dictionary of euphemisms & other doubletalk*. New York: Crown Publishers. This cross-referenced guidebook to thousands of euphemisms and doubletalk is a good reference for the word study classroom. In his introduction, Rawson distinguishes between honest euphemisms, which are intended to facilitate social discourse, and dishonest euphemisms, or “doubletalk,” which seek to hide or distort the truth.
- **Stahl, S. A. and Fairbanks, M. M. (1986). The effects of vocabulary instruction: A model-based meta-analysis. *Review of Educational Research*, 56(1), 72–110. Based on their survey of vocabulary acquisition research, Stahl and Fairbanks recommend the following for effective vocabulary instruction: a combination of definition and context, activities that involve deeper processing, and multiple exposures to each word.

Teaching Grammar and Writing

EMC's Writing Workshops at the end of each unit provide explicit instruction on steps involved in the writing process.

- Behrens, L. and Rosen, L. J. (2002). *Writing and reading across the curriculum*, 8th ed. New York: Addison Wesley Longman, Inc. Each chapter is constructed around a single topic, with articles that reflect different disciplines, viewpoints, and ways of writing. In addition to the readings, unique rhetoric provides step-by-step instruction in summarizing, critiquing, and synthesizing, as well as the elements and writing process of the research paper.
- Burniske, R.W. (2000). *Literacy in the cyberage*. Arlington Heights, IL: Skylight Training and Publishing Inc. Students must consider

Grammar & Style Workshops introduce concepts and provide the opportunity to apply skills. Additional instruction is provided in Exceeding the Standards: Grammar & Style.

- author, message, audience, etiquette, and rules in online communications. This text explores ways to teach online literacy.
- Corder, J. W. and Ruszkiewicz, J. J. (1989). *Handbook of current English*, 8th ed. New York: HarperCollins Publishers.
- Follett, W. and Wensburg, E. (1998). *Modern English usage: A guide*. New York: Hill and Wang, Inc.
- Flood, J., Lapp, D., Squire, J., and Jensen, J. M. (2003). *Handbook of research on teaching the English language arts*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers. This comprehensive compendium of research studies is sponsored by the International Reading Association and the National Council of Teachers of English.
- Fowler, H. W. (1983). *Modern English usage*, 2nd ed. New York: Oxford University Press. Fowler's guide offers definitive judgments on English usage and gives a clear and authoritative picture of modern English.
- Garner, B. A. (1998). *A dictionary of modern American usage*. New York: Oxford University Press. Referred to as the American equivalent of Fowler, this comprehensive usage guide provides a detailed explanation and defense of standard American English.
- Gibaldi, J. and Lindernberger, H. (1998). *The MLA style manual*, 2nd ed. New York: The Modern Language Association of America.
- Hacker, D. (2000). *Rules for writers: A brief handbook*, 4th ed. New York: St. Martin's Press.
- Hairston, M, and Ruszkiewics, J. J. (1996). *The Scott Foresman handbook for writers*, 4th ed. New York: HarperCollins College Publishers.
- Hall, D. (1999). *Writing well*, 8th ed. New York: HarperCollins College Division.
- Hillocks, G., Jr. (1986). *Research on written composition: New directions for teaching*. Urbana, IL: Educational Resource Information Center and National Conference on Research in English.
- Hillocks, G., Jr., and Smith, M. W. (2003). *Grammars and literacy learning*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers. Hillock and Smith argue that if knowledge of grammar is to be part of general education, then that grammar should accurately reflect how the language operates. They state that both structural linguistics and transformational/generative grammar are truer to English than traditional school grammar.
- Purves, A., Papa, L., and Jordon, S. (1994). *Encyclopedia of English studies and language arts*, vol.1. New York: Scholastic. A project of the National Council of Teachers of English, this work focuses on the study and teaching of English at all levels of education, exploring ten topics: language, literature, composition, reading, drama, media, technology, curriculum, teaching and learning, and assessment.
- Sebranek, P., Meyer, V., and Kemper, D. (1995). *Write source 2000: A guide to writing, thinking, and learning*. Burlington, WI: Write Source Educational Publishing House.

Mirrors & Windows provides in-depth lessons plans to help plan curriculum and differentiate instruction.

- Sebranek, P., Meyer, V., and Kemper, D. (1992). *Writers inc.* Burlington, WI: Write Source Educational Publishing House.
- University of Chicago Press, The. (2003). *The Chicago manual of style: The essential guide for writers, editors, and publishers*, 15th ed. Chicago, IL: The University of Chicago Press.
- Weaver, C. Teaching grammar in context. (1996). Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann. Weaver investigates definitions of grammar, how language is naturally acquired, the role of errors in language learning, and the value of teaching grammar in context (during the writing process), rather than in isolation.

Lesson Planning and Differentiating Instruction

- Burke, J. *The English teacher's companion: A complete guide to classroom, curriculum, and the profession.* (1999). Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann. The author explores a variety of topics and issues related to teaching language arts, including lesson planning and issues surrounding students with special needs.
- Daniels, H. (2002). *Literature circles: Voice and choice in the student-centered classroom*, 2nd ed. York, ME: Stenhouse. Considered the authoritative text on literature circles, Daniels's book provides all the information teachers need to begin using this form of differentiated instruction in their classrooms.
- Eldridge, D.B. (1998). *Teacher talk: Multicultural lesson plans for the elementary classroom.* Needham Heights, MA: Allyn & Bacon. This text explains the importance of and approaches to multicultural education, complete with lesson plans and assessments.
- Forsten, C., Grant, J. and Hollas, B. *Differentiating textbooks: Strategies to improve student comprehension & motivation.* (2003). Peterborough, NL: Crystal Springs Books. This text explains how to differentiate instruction by adapting textbooks, teaching reading strategies, and using graphic organizers and a variety of learning activities
- Gallagher, K. *Reading reasons: Motivational mini-lessons for middle and high school.* (2003). Portland, ME: Stenhouse Publishers. Mr. Gallagher explains how inspire students and share the value of reading with them through mini-lessons.
- Gibbons, P. Scaffolding language scaffolding learning: Teaching second language learners in the mainstream classroom. (2002). Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann. Using a scaffolded approach, Gibbons demonstrates how teachers can embed language instruction into content-area curriculum to combine language and subject learning for English Language Learners..
- Greenwood, S. C. (1995). Learning contracts and transaction: A natural marriage in the middle. *Language Arts*, 72, 88–96. Using concrete examples, Greenwood suggests that learning contracts give middle school students a combination of structure and autonomy ideal for their developmental level. Many suggestions for implementing learning contracts are included.
- Gregory, G. H. and Chapman, C. (2002). *Differentiated instructional strategies: One size doesn't fit all.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin

Press, Inc. Gregory and Chapman offer instructional strategies for students with differing needs and learning styles.

Heacox, D. (2002). *Differentiating instruction in the regular classroom: How to reach and teach all learners, grades 3–12*. Minneapolis, MN: Free Spirit Publishing Inc. Heacox devises ways to differentiate classroom instruction by drawing upon Benjamin Bloom’s Taxonomy and Howard Gardner’s theory of multiple intelligences.

Hill, J. D. and Flynn, K.M. (2006). *Classroom instruction that works with English Language Learners*. Alexandria, Virginia: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. This book describes the stages of second language acquisition and ways teachers can scaffold literacy experiences for ELLs’ maximum success.

Kobrin, D. *In there with the kids: Crafting lessons that connect with students*. (2004). Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. The stories Mr. Kobrin shares can be examined to guide teachers in their own lesson planning and interactions with students.

Larkin, M. (2002). “Using scaffolded instruction to optimize learning.” Arlington, VA: ERIC Clearinghouse on disabilities and gifted education. Larkin describes what scaffolded instruction is, guidelines for providing it, responsibilities within scaffolded instruction, and recommendations for using it.

MASTER Teacher, The. (1995). *Lesson plans and modifications for inclusion and collaborative classrooms*. Manhattan, KS: The MASTER Teacher, Inc. This resource includes lesson plans for K–12 teachers that meet the needs of special needs students.

Pettig, K. L. (2000). On the road to differentiated practice. *Educational Leadership*, 58(1), 14–18. Pettig offers advice on getting started with differentiated instruction.

Rice, K. M. and Nelson, K. L. (1999). *Daily planning for today’s classroom: A guide for writing lesson and activity plans*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing. Rice and Nelson offer guidance in writing lesson plans that include activities for diverse classrooms.

Rominger, L., Laughrea, S. P., and Elkin, N. (2001). *Your first year as a high school teacher: Making the transition from total novice to successful professional*. Roseville, CA: Prima Publishing. The authors encourage new teachers to create a learning-centered environment and stress the importance of effective classroom management.

Strickland, D.S. and Alvermann, D.E., eds. (2004). *Bridging the literacy achievement gap grades 4-12*. New York: Teachers College Press. This book offers a variety of programs and approaches to reaching and teaching students of varying abilities and from diverse backgrounds.

Tomlinson, C. A. (2001). *How to differentiate instruction in mixed-ability classrooms*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. Considered the authoritative text on differentiated instruction, this book outlines more than 20 types of differentiated instruction, from learning centers to orbital studies, and gives examples of how teachers have applied these techniques

**Differentiated
Instruction activities
in the Teacher’s
Edition and the
Lesson Plans assist
with reading
proficiency, English
language learning,**

and enrichment.

to the content areas.

Vacca, R. T. and Vacca, J. A. (1999). *Content area reading: Literacy and learning across the curriculum*. New York: Longman. This book helps teachers integrate reading, writing, and vocabulary activities into daily instruction and includes examples of forms and checklists to assess learning.

Wehrmann, K. S. (2000). Baby steps: A beginner's guide. *Educational Leadership*, 58(1), 20–23. Wehrmann offers concrete, manageable suggestions for differentiating instruction based on her own experiences in the classroom.

Wong, H. K. and Wong, R. T. (1998). *The first days of school: How to be an effective teacher*. Mountain View, CA: Harry K. Wong Publications. Wong and Wong focus on using research-based teaching instruction to lead students to mastery.

Facilitating Transfer of Learning

Extend Understanding and Extend the Text activities at the after-reading stage facilitate transfer to new contexts.

Boriarsky, C. (2001). *Learning to transfer knowledge from one assignment to the next*. Talk delivered at Recreating the Classroom: 91st Annual NCTE Convention. Baltimore. November 16.

Boriarsky defines forward-looking and backward-reaching transfer and suggests classroom strategies for encouraging each.

Salomen, G. and Perkins, D. N. (1994). Rocky roads to transfer: Rethinking mechanisms of a neglected phenomenon. *Educational Psychologist*, 24(2), 113–142. This article defines “low road” and “high road” transfer and outlines the conditions necessary for each to take place.

Facilitating Collaborative Learning

Cohen, E. G. (1994). *Designing groupwork* (2nd ed). New York: Teachers College Press. Offering practical solutions to common problems with collaborative learning groups, this book focuses on involving all students in collaborative learning and combating stereotypes students develop about various group members.

*Hiebert, E. (1983). An examination of ability grouping for reading instruction. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 18, 231–255. Citing research into homogenous and heterogeneous reading groups, this article advocates using homogenous groups only for short-term tasks.

Johnson, D. W. and Johnson, R. T. (1999). *Learning together and alone: Cooperative, competitive, and individualistic learning*, 5th ed. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. Integrating research into cooperative, competitive, and individualistic learning, the authors suggest when to use each kind of learning and offer strategies for teaching necessary social skills, assessing group members, evaluating cooperation, and resolving conflicts.

*Kuhn, D. (1972). Mechanism of change in development of cognitive structures. *Child Development*, 43, 833–844. Kuhn recommends cooperative learning based on research findings that students learn most effectively from tutors who are closest to them in development and knowledge level.

Opitz, M. E. (1998). *Flexible grouping in reading*. New York: Scholastic.

Collaborative learning activities are included in postreading Extend Understanding or Extend the Text sections.

Ideas for heterogeneous grouping can be found in EMC's Lesson Plans book.

Recommending flexible grouping over ability grouping, Opitz offers concrete strategies for managing flexible groups.

Putnam, J. (1997). *Cooperative learning in diverse classrooms*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Merrill. Combining an overview of the research with practical suggestions for managing small groups, Putnam provides a comprehensive introduction to cooperative learning.

*Schell, L. L. and Rouch, R. L. (1988). The low reading group: An instructional and social dilemma. *Journal of Reading Education*, 14, 18–23. Schell and Rouch were among the first researchers to investigate the negative effects of ability grouping on struggling readers. They advocate substituting heterogeneous grouping whenever possible.

Slavin, R. E. (1990, 1995). *Cooperative learning*, 2nd ed. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. Beginning with the findings from 90 research studies comparing cooperative learning to more traditional approaches, Slavin discusses various types of cooperative learning and offers strategies for implementing each.

*Webb, N. (1985). Student interaction and learning in small groups: A research summary. In R. E. Slavin, S. Sharan, S. Kagan, R. Hertz-Lazarowitz, C. Webb, and R. Schmuck, eds., *Learning to cooperate, cooperating to learn*. New York: Putnam. Building on Wittrock's findings (below), Webb supports collaborative learning groups as opportunities for students to manipulate information in ways that help them internalize it.

*Wittrock, M. C. (1978). The cognitive movement in instruction. *Educational Psychologist*, 13, 15–29. Wittrock finds that students learn most when they are required to elaborate on, paraphrase, summarize, or otherwise manipulate information they have been presented.

Developing Questioning, Thinking, and Listening Skills

EMC's Find Meaning/Make Judgments or Refer to Text/Reason with Text questions use Bloom's taxonomy to develop different levels of cognitive thinking skills at the post-reading stage.

Bloom, B. S., ed. (1956). *Taxonomy of educational objectives: The classification of educational goals, Handbook I, cognitive domain*. New York: Longmans, Green. This seminal work creates a hierarchical framework for categorizing thinking skills. Educators use Bloom's structure to write discussion questions and test items that develop higher-level thinking skills.

Gardner, H. (1999). *The unschooled mind: How children learn and how schools should teach*. New York: Basic. Gardner examines the characteristics of learners and the tasks required of them in schools. He urges schools to include more tasks that help learners understand what they are learning.

Nickerson, R. S., D. N. Perkins, and E. E. Smith. *The teaching of thinking*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum, 1985. The author suggests ways to improve students' abilities to perform higher-level thinking tasks.

Rickards, J. P. (November 1976). Stimulating high-level comprehension by interspersing questions in text passages. *Educational Technology*, p. 13. Rickards's findings show that interspersing questions throughout a selection increases students' comprehension skills.

Reading comprehension and analysis questions are interspersed throughout the selection in each Reading Model.

Wood, K. D. and Harmon, J. M. (2001). *Strategies for integrating reading and writing in middle and high school classrooms*. Westerville, OH: National Middle School Association. Wood and Harmon discuss research-based strategies for increasing students' reading and writing skills. They cite the effectiveness of using interspersed questions to alleviate during-reading difficulties.

Rigor in the Classroom

Instruction is scaffolded throughout the program to lead students to independent learning.

American Diploma Project, The. *Do Graduation Tests Measure up? A Closer Look at State High School Exit Exams*. Washington, DC: Achieve, Inc., 2004. About one-half of states have high school exit exams. Based on their study, Achieve, Inc. concluded that most exit exams measure only a fraction of the knowledge and skills essential for success, they cannot measure everything that matters, and they need to be strengthened over time.

American Diploma Project, The. *Ready or Not: Creating a High School Diploma that Counts*. Achieve, Inc., 2004. This study determined that there need to be stronger links between high school and post-high school life. It concluded that more than half of all college freshmen need to take at least one remedial course, fewer than half of the students who begin college actually earn a degree, and high school graduates lack basic employment skills, especially in literacy and critical thinking.

Mirrors & Windows is correlated to meet the national NCTE/IRA Language Arts Standards.

Conley, D. T., Director. *Understanding University Success: A Report from Standards for Success* (A Project of the Association of American Universities and The Pew Charitable Trusts). Center for Educational Policy Research, University of Oregon, 2003. This report examines the skills and knowledge students need to succeed in introductory-level college courses. It includes lists of standards for English, math, natural sciences, social sciences, second languages, and the arts.

Expectations Gap, The: A 50-State Review of High School Graduation Requirements. Achieve, Inc., 2004. This study shows that nearly 40 percent of college freshman are not prepared for college-level coursework, and high school students are not prepared to enter the workforce upon graduation. College readiness includes preparing students in language, communication (speaking and listening), writing, research, logic (thinking critically), informational text (interpreting, synthesizing, using), media (evaluating), and literature (analyzing).

Honawar, V. "Report: High Schools Must Demand More." *Education Week* 24 (16), 2005. This article encourages high schools to require all students to take four years of rigorous coursework in math and English.

Mirrors & Windows provides scaffolded instruction and independent readings to help students become independent learners.

Jago, C. *With rigor for all*. (2000). Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann. Jago stresses the importance of challenging all readers with sophisticated literature, using scaffolding and teaching strategies that will enable them to be successful with these texts

Critical Literacy activities are included in the post-reading section to help students become critical thinkers.

and will broaden their learning.

Joftus, S. *Every Child a Graduate: A Framework for and Excellent Education for all Middle and High School Students*. Alliance for Excellent Education, 2002. About 25 percent of all high school students read “below basic” levels, affecting all areas of achievement. Joftus recommends literacy instruction throughout middle and high school, more knowledgeable teachers, college preparation plans for all students (rigorous curriculum), and smaller schools.

Langer, J. A., et al. *Guidelines for Teaching Middle and High School Students to Read and Write Well: Six Features of Effective Instruction*. Albany, NY: National Research Center on English Learning & Achievement, University of Albany. Among her suggestions, Langer includes varying lesson types, test-prep integration, cross-curricular connections, fostering higher level thinking skills, teaching work strategies, and collaboration.

Milewski, G.B., et al. *A Survey to Evaluate the Alignment of the New SAT Writing and Critical Reading Sections to Curricula and Instructional Pieces* (Report No. 2005-1). College Board, 2005. This paper focuses on “the current state of English/language arts curricula and instructional practices.” It also outlines the changes made to the SAT test, including the addition of “Critical Reading.”

Moore, D. W., et al. *Adolescent Literacy: A Position Statement*. International Reading Association, 1999. Adolescents need advanced literacy instruction to prepare them for the workforce, including reading comprehension and study strategies, self-assessments, and access to a wide variety of reading materials.

National Commission on Writing. *The Neglected “R”: The Need for a Writing Revolution*. College Board, 2003. Most students cannot write as well as expected in college or the workplace (“precise, engaging, and coherent”). Issues addressed by this study include time spent on writing, kinds of writing assessments used, use of technology, and teacher training.

National Education Summit on High Schools. *An Action Agenda for Improving America’s High Schools*. Achieve, Inc. and National Governors Association, 2005. In order to prepare students for the workforce, high schools should require four years of rigorous English, gear tests toward college and work readiness, require all students to learn rigorous content, offer additional support to underperforming students, and improve teachers’ knowledge and skills.

National High School Alliance. *A Call to Action: Transforming High School for All Youth*. Institute of Educational Leadership, Inc, 2005. This report focuses on transforming high schools by fostering higher academic achievement, closing the achievement gap, and promoting civic and personal growth so that all students are ready for college and the work force.

NCTE Beliefs about the Teaching of Writing. November 2004. The National Council of Teachers of English.
<<http://ncte.org/profdev/conv/workshops/writing/news/118876.htm>>
In this article, the NCTE Writing Study Group outlines eleven principles employed by effective writing teachers. The article includes ideas for practical application of these principles.

**Standardized Test
Practice Workshops are
provided at the end of
each unit. Reading
Assessment questions
are included after the
selections in the high
school grades.**

Olson, L. "States Target High Schools for Change." *Education Week* 8 February 2005. According to this article, more states are trying to define a core curriculum beginning in middle school that prepares all students for work and college. It suggests new (more rigorous) graduation requirements and exit exams that better measure work and college readiness.

Paek, P. L., et al. *A Portrait of Advanced Placement Teachers' Practices* (Report No. 2005-7). College Board, 2005. This study focuses on the practices and needs of AP U.S. history and biology teachers, but also applies to language arts. An issue addressed in the study is that of AP test preparation. The main difficulty AP teachers face is how to balance test preparation with helping students gain more than a surface understanding of concepts.

Rising to the Challenge: Are High School Graduates Prepared for College and Work? A Study of Recent High School Graduates, College Instructors, and Employers. Peter D. Hart Research Associates/Public Opinion Strategies prepared for Achieve, Inc., Feb. 2005. This study highlights gaps between high school education and college and workforce readiness. Suggested actions include more rigorous student testing and requiring all students to take more challenging courses.

Sanoff, A.P. "Survey: High School Fails to Engage Students." USA Today 9 May 2005: D5. A survey by Indiana University reveals that the amount and type of coursework required in high schools is not rigorous enough to prepare students for the output required in college. The result is that many students end up in remedial programs upon entering postsecondary institutions.